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ATTITUDE OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL TOWARD PREGNANT AND
PARENTING STUDENTS AND THE IMPLICATIONS
FOR SCHOOL POLICIES

Advisor: Dr. William Denton
Dissertation dated May, 1992

The purpose of this study was to examine specific demographic factors which may influence the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Further, this study proposed to determine if there was a relationship between school personnel attitudes and the way school personnel felt students were being treated who were pregnant and parenting students.

The research design was based on a descriptive method concerned with discovering causal relationships. The research methodology included the use of a questionnaire survey. This survey was sent to a stratified random sample of high schools in an urban school system in the Southeastern United States. Sixty-three surveys were returned completed for analysis. The data were analyzed using Pearson r Correlation Coefficients, Frequency Analysis, and Analysis of

Variance to determine if there were any significant relationships between and among the variables.

The study concluded that there is a significant relationship between race and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Based on the findings, African Americans tended to have a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. Teachers' translation of school policies appeared to be more favorable toward pregnant and parenting students than their attitudes toward these students.

ATTITUDE OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL TOWARD PREGNANT AND
PARENTING STUDENTS AND THE IMPLICATIONS
FOR SCHOOL POLICIES

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BY
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Acknowledgements.....	ii
Table of Contents.....	iii
List of Tables	vi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background of the Problem.....	2
Teenage Pregnancy in Georgia.....	5
Statement of the Problem.....	8
Significance of the Study.....	9
Summary	10
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	12
Trends of Adolescent Childbearing.....	12
Attitude of Teachers Toward Students.....	14
Student Attitudes Toward School.....	17
School Response to Adolescent Childbearing.....	19
Demographics and Adolescent Childbearing.....	20
Adolescent Childbearing and School Policies	21
Summary of Related Literature	25

III.	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	27
	Projected Relationship of the Variables	27
	Conceptual Support for the Interlinkages of Variables	28
	Definition of the Variables.....	29
	Hypotheses	30
	Limitations of the Study	31
	Summary of the Theoretical Framework	31
IV.	METHODS AND PROCEDURES	33
	Research Design.....	33
	Description of the Setting.....	33
	Sampling Procedures	33
	Description of the Instrument	34
	Data Collection Procedures.....	35
	Statistical Applications	35
	Summary of Methods and Procedures	36
V.	ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.....	37
	Analysis of Findings.....	40
	Summary	56
VI.	FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	57
	Findings	57
	Conclusions	63

Implications	64
Recommendations.....	67
Summary	68

Appendices

A	School Population	71
B	School Demography	72
C	Model of Theoretical Framework.....	73
D	Stratified Sample of Urban High Schools	74
E	Title IX, Federal Register	75
F	Questionnaire	76
G	Letter of Approval (AAUW Educational Foundation)	83
H	Letter of Approval (Atlanta Public Schools).....	84
I	Letter to School Personnel.....	86

Bibliography	87
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LIST OF TABLES

Number		Page
1	Percent of Respondents Per School	38
2	Comparison of School Personnel Ages and Attitudes	40
3	Correlation of School Personnel Attitudes and Ages	41
4	Sexual Makeup of Respondents	42
5	Correlation of School Personnel and Attitudes.....	43
6	Distribution by Race of Responding Personnel.....	44
7	Correlation of School Personnel Attitudes and Race	45
8	Distribution of Employment Experience of School Personnel.....	46
9	Correlation of Participants Experience and Attitudes	47
10	Types of Positions of Respondents.....	48
11	Correlation Between Types of Positions and Attitudes of School Personnel	49
12	Difference Between School Socioeconomic Status of the Student Body and Respondents Attitudes	50
13	Comparison of Pregnancy Index and Respondents Attitudes	52

14	Correlation of Attitudes of Administrators and Professional Support Staff and their Translation of School Treatment.....	54
15	Correlation of Attitudes of Teachers and their Translation of School Treatment	55

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The problem of pregnancy among school-age girls concerns every school system and every community in the country. Each year more than 300,000 girls age 18 and younger become mothers (Compton, Duncan and Hruska, 1987; Dunkle and Nash, 1989). It is believed that early pregnancies often lead to dropping out of school. According to Earle (1990), over 40 percent of all girls who drop out of school give pregnancy or marriage as their reason.

Early childbearing has also been linked to several other societal ills. Teenage parents raise more children who become juvenile delinquents and have lower achievement capabilities (Secretary of Health and Human Services, 1989). Teenage pregnancy is also a primary contributor to the causes of poverty (League of Women Voters, 1984; Hall and Taylor, 1984; Kenney, 1987).

According to Nwanne (1986), beliefs or attitudes may influence one's behavior. Based on this assumption, it is further assumed that certain attitudes held by school personnel may be contributing to the drop out rate among pregnant and parenting students.

In a study conducted by Dunkle and Nash (1989), it was reported that teachers felt that pregnant and parenting students are morally and intellectually inferior. Further, in a study conducted by Peng and Takia (1983) students were reported as saying that their inability to get along with teachers was a significant factor in their decision to leave school prior to graduation. These studies indicated that the lack of personal relationship skills was a causative factor in students leaving school prior to graduation.

It was the intent of this study to relate specific demographic factors which may influence the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. The study also proposed to determine if there was a relationship between attitude of school personnel and their interpretation of school policies affecting pregnant and parenting students.

Background of the Problem

Teenage pregnancy is a serious problem in America. The United States has the highest teenage pregnancy rate of any western industrialized nation (Compton, Duncan and Hruska, 1987). Our teenage pregnancy rate is more than twice as high as that of Canada, England, France or Sweden and five times higher than the Netherlands.

Nationally, only about half of the teenagers who have their first infant before age 18 graduate from high school. Teenage mothers earn only half the lifetime income of women who wait until age 20

to have their first child. Teenage fathers also have lower incomes, more children, and less education than men who postpone having children until they are in their twenties (DeKalb County Teenage Pregnancy Task Force, 1989).

According to the National Research Council (1987) during 1984, more than half of all births to adolescents occurred outside marriage, compared with only about one-third in 1970. In 1984, births to unmarried mothers under age 20 numbered more than 270,000, approximately 46 percent of them to mothers under age 18. Despite a decline in the number and rate of births to women in all adolescent age groups, rates of nonmarital childbearing increased steadily during the 1970s as rates of marital childbearing among teenagers decreased. However, nonmarital childbearing has also increased among adult women over the past decade and a half. As a result, births to unmarried teenagers now account for a smaller proportion of all nonmarital births, approximately one-third in 1984 compared with approximately one half in 1970. Trends in nonmarital childbearing among adolescents vary dramatically by race. Consistently, black teenagers have been significantly more likely to give birth outside of marriage than whites. In 1984, the rate of nonmarital childbearing among black teenagers ages 15 to 19 was 4.5 times greater than the rate among whites — 87.1 per 1,000 unmarried black women, compared with 19.0 per 1,000 unmarried white women. However, since 1970 there has been a sharp increase in the rate of unmarried parenthood among white

teenagers and in the number of births to white teenage girls: nonmarital birth rates for white teenagers ages 15 through 19 rose by 74 percent between 1970 and 1984. It is this rise that explains the overall increase in births to unmarried teenagers, since the rate of black teenage nonmarital childbearing among women under age 20 actually declined by 10 percent during this period.

Poverty is to blame, say most researchers. Dash (1987), a Washington Post reporter and author of the book *When Children Want Children*, noted that though black teens in poor areas are more likely to have high rates of teen pregnancy, pregnancy rates are high among poor whites in rural areas as well. Lewis (1990) reports the findings of the Children's Defense Fund (1988) which observed that disadvantaged teenagers perceive little hope of becoming full participants in society.

In a report published by the Department of Human Resources (1987), teenage mothers raise one out of every six children born annually in the United States. According to statistics published by the Children's Defense Fund in the spring of 1988, 1,300 babies are born to teenagers each day (488 are to mothers under the age of 18). More than half of the teenage girls cited by the Children's Defense Fund (1988) were single when their child was born. What is more alarming is the drop in age in which sexual activity begins. This drop is resulting in a rapid shift to more births to teenagers below the age of 15. If present trends continue, 40 percent of current 14 year olds will become pregnant before reaching the age

of 20 and one in five will bear a child. Often alone, poor, and unwed, these young mothers are at great risk of poverty and too often must be supported by taxpayers' dollars. In 1987, according to the Secretary of Health and Human Services (1989), more than 19 billion dollars in Federal assistance (including Aid to Families with Dependent Children, Food Stamps and Medicaid) went to families which were begun by a teenage birth. Over half of all Aid to Families with Dependent Children recipients under the age of 30 were teenagers when their first child was born. Without adequate education or training, teenage mothers face a life of near certain hardship and poverty, often receiving little or no support payments from the father. Babies born to teenage mothers are more likely to die, be of low birth weight, have lower IQs, and suffer serious birth defects. Teenage mothers, still children themselves, are often ill-prepared to shoulder the parental responsibilities of nurturing and caring for their infant properly (Secretary of Health and Human Services, 1989).

Teenage Pregnancy in Georgia

Over the past decade, the high incidence of teenage pregnancy has been recognized increasingly as a problem. Georgia continues to rank fifth highest in the nation in the number of teenage pregnancies. Of the estimated 258,027 females age 15-19 in Georgia, about 51.5 percent are believed to be sexually active thus exposed to the risk of pregnancy. It is estimated that out of Georgia's 230,000 girls (1980 census) age 10-14, 4,600 are sexually

active. Of these sexually active teens, about one out of three always uses contraception; one out of four never does. The high rate of divorce, separation, and out of wedlock births among teenagers means that many are heading single parent households and likely to be poor. In 1985 about one in ten teenage girls ages 15-19 had a pregnancy. There were 985 pregnancies of girls 10-14 and 25,864 pregnancies to girls 15-19. They accounted for about one-fifth of the state's total number of pregnancies for all ages (Department of Human Resources, 1987).

According to Solomon (1991), during 1989 there were 2,186 teenagers who became pregnant in Dekalb County according to statistics compiled by the Dekalb County Task Force on Teen Pregnancy. Lewis (1990) reported that while the teen pregnancy rate for blacks remained stable statewide from 1984 through 1988, it rose sharply in the metro area. The rate for black teenagers in the metro area rose 37 percent from 1984 through 1988, according to the latest available state statistics. Not only are black teenage girls ages 15 to 17 in the metro area having more babies than their white peers, they also are having twice the number of abortions, according to the statistics. This finding is counter to the beliefs of many counselors and social observers that black teenagers have fewer abortions than whites.

Teenage pregnancy affects everybody's family, community, and neighborhood. For young adolescents ages 10-14, the pregnancy rate is increasing. Four out of five teenage pregnancies are

unwanted. One out of every eight girls gives birth while still of school age. The physical, emotional, and social consequences of unintended teenage pregnancy include: abortions (there were 9,081 induced abortions to teenagers in Georgia in 1985), poor prenatal care, retardation, and child neglect and abuse. The physical and emotional scars left by unintended teenage pregnancy are costly and traumatic to teenage girls, teenage fathers, and their infants. Teenage mothers are ten times more likely to commit suicide than are their peers. Teenage mothers most often interrupt their schooling, condemning themselves to lower levels of educational and economic achievement. In Georgia, only 50 percent of teenage females who have given birth before age 18 complete high school, compared to 96 percent who have not given birth by age 20. Teenage girls who become pregnant at or below age 16 will likely drop out of school. They have children to support but lack the education and skills to get and hold a job. They have children to raise but lack the maturity to become responsible parents. They may get married (three out of five teenage marriages end in divorce within five years), but chances are they will be divorced before their children are in school. Their children are now victims of an unstable family life (Department of Human Resources, 1987).

Statement of the Problem

This study is two dimensional in that (1) it seeks to investigate demographic factors which influence the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students and (2) to

investigate the relationship between attitude of school personnel and translation of school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

The independent variables of this study were age, gender, race, number of years of experience, and position. Other independent variables include socioeconomic status and pregnancy index. This study was intended to answer the following questions:

1. What effect does age have on the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students?
2. What effect does gender have on the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students?
3. What effect does race have on the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students?
4. What effect does the number of years of experience of school personnel have on the attitude of pregnant and parenting students?
5. What effect does position have on the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students?
6. What effect does socioeconomic status of the student body have on the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students?

7. Is there a difference between the pregnancy index and the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students?
8. Is there a relationship between the attitude of teachers and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students?
9. Is there a relationship between the attitude of the administrators and professional support personnel and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students?

Significance of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students influence the school treatment of and adherence to school policy. And in turn, the findings of this study will be shared with the personnel within an urban school system in order to enable the development of a more comprehensive policy which is compatible with the needs of adolescent parents. The resulting policy should encourage staff compliance with Title IX. The suggested policy should provide for clear system-instituted sanctions for staff who violate Title IX.

Summary

The increasing concern over teenage pregnancy has pulled together health, business and industry, welfare, and educational agencies on the local, state and federal levels to combat the devastating medical, social, emotional and economic problems related to adolescent pregnancy and child bearing. The teenage pregnancy rate in the United States is more than twice as high as that of Canada, England, France or Sweden and five times higher than the Netherlands (Compton, Duncan and Hruska, 1987). Nationally, about half of the teenagers who have their first infant before age 18 graduate from high school (DeKalb County Teenage Pregnancy Task Force, 1989). Black teenagers have been significantly more likely to give birth outside marriage than white teenagers (National Research Council, 1987). Georgia continues to rank fifth highest in the nation in the number of teenage pregnancies (Department of Human Resources, 1987). It was reported that while teenage pregnancy for black teenagers remained stable statewide from 1984 through 1988 it rose sharply in the metro area. In Georgia, only 50 percent of teenage females who have given birth before age 18 complete high school (Lewis, 1990, p. 9).

The study investigated demographic factors which influence the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. The study also proposed to determine if there was a relationship between the attitude of school personnel and their

interpretation of school policies affecting pregnant and parenting students. The findings of this study will be used to develop a more comprehensive policy that is more compatible with the needs of adolescent parents.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The focus of the literature review was based on the assumption that beliefs or attitudes influence behavior. Nwanne (1986) recognized that beliefs or attitudes toward a situation influence perceptions, and perceptions of a situation are influenced by beliefs or attitudes. Based on this assumption, it is further assumed that certain attitudes held by school personnel may be contributing to the drop out rate among pregnant and parenting students.

It is the purpose of Chapter II to report the most current research that may or may not support this contention. The literature review was comprised of the existing trends, those contributing factors to students leaving school prior to graduation, such as school related factors, teacher attitudes, and the relationship between teachers and students. Other research literature will examine specific student factors such as demographics and student attitudes.

Trends of Adolescent Childbearing

Adolescent sexuality is not a new phenomenon in the United States, but the issues are different today than they were in the 1960s. According to Rolle (1987) more teens today are sexually

active and at risk of pregnancy than 10 or 15 years ago. In conjunction, many school administrators view teen pregnancy as one of the top 10 problems facing their school systems (Kenney, 1987). This is not surprising when it is considered that four out of every ten females in the United States become pregnant before they turn twenty years old (Kenney, 1987). This situation has become problematic because of the increasing cost to the public, the impact on educational attainment, employment, income, and the realization that it is a primary contributor to the causes of poverty. The schooling experience for many teenagers who become pregnant is often terminally interrupted. In 1985, Mott and Marsigilo found that only one half of women who gave birth at age 17 eventually completed high school while still in their twenties and that fewer than one half eventually completed high school of those who were below 17 years when they gave birth. According to Kenney (1987), the result of this situation is that women who drop out exist in impoverished financial and educational conditions. The following information suggested that if women would delay the birth of their first child until age 20 the positive impact on society should be significant. Burt (1986) estimated that "the potential savings to the public would be \$5,560 for each birth delayed and \$2.06 billion for the entire cohort of teenagers who would have otherwise had a first birth in 1985" (p. 221). Further, Mott and Marsigilo (1985) found that of women who waited to age 20 to have their first child, 90 percent attained a high school diploma.

Attitude of Teachers Toward Students

Wirt and Kirst (1989) stated that the attitudes of teachers have been regarded as a potentially powerful instrument for political socialization since the days of Athens. One curious feature of the teacher-as-socializing-agent is the wide evidence that teacher adherence to values normally defined as democratic is not very strong. According to the researcher, teachers' responses to attitude scales on civil rights raise questions about their knowledge of and attachment to civil rights values. If prevalent, this presents a picture of socializing agents who are not particularly well trained for their task, noncombative, sensitive to community pressure, and uncertain about if not antipathetic to at least part of the democratic credo she or he is supposed to transmit.

Attitudes of teachers toward pregnant and parenting students may be of great significance when researching causes of students leaving school prior to graduation. According to Earle (1987) teachers' responses to students have also been found to favor male academic development and independence. In a study conducted by Sadker and Sadker (1986), girls were more likely to be invisible members of the classroom. They found that teachers talk to them less, provide them with fewer directions, counsel them less, and give them fewer rewards. Yet students who receive teacher attention are more likely to succeed academically. Teachers are more likely to show boys how to complete task for themselves (encouraging their proficiency and independence), and are correspondingly more likely to complete a task for a girl

(encouraging lack of skill and confidence). In sex-segregated classrooms, teachers spend more time in the boy's section. Girls are less likely to be identified or to participate in accelerated classes than gifted boys. In essence, girls and boys are experiencing different academic environments.

The Children's Defense Fund (1988) found that teenage girls with poor basic skills are five times as likely to become mothers before the age of 16 as teenagers with average basic skills. Three out of four of the 14 and 15 year old girls who were mothers in the early 1980s had poor mastery of basic skills. Their research indicates that early academic failure may be the precursor to teenage pregnancy and a host of other problems. Wittenberg (1988) found that many at-risk youth feel very strongly that teachers do not take time to help them overcome their problems, that the teachers do not care, and that the teachers do not like them. Peng and Takia (1983) found that students' inability to get along with teachers was a significant factor in their decision to leave school. It was further revealed that not only do potential dropouts have difficulty in getting along with their teachers, but they also have difficulty getting along with other students. Researchers Dunkle and Nash (1989) similarly found that some teachers feel that these students are morally and intellectually inferior. These attitudes may be reflected in the level of expectations that a teacher would have for the student and the possible implementation of programs geared toward assisting pregnant and parenting students. These studies indicated that the lack of personal relationship skills was a causative factor in dropping

out. As long as these youth feel they got along reasonably well with their teachers and feel they are treated fairly by teachers, they feel more positive about remaining in school (Dunkle and Nash, 1989).

Firestone and Rosenblum (1988) alienation and commitment of students and teachers in selected Urban High Schools. First, data were collected in the district office and two high schools in each city. The superintendent was asked to pick two urban comprehensive high schools with similar student bodies, one of which reflected the most difficult problems of these schools. The schools were middle sized with a poor, minority population. The median school size was 1,553 with three smaller schools having less than 1,100 students and two very large ones with over 2,500. In seven schools, three-fourths or more of the students were black and in eight, two-fifths or more received free lunch. In six schools where data were available, average daily attendance was low, ranging from 72 to 85 percent. Three person-days were spent in each building. Individual interviews were conducted with the principal, two assistant principals, and a counselor. In addition, interviews were conducted with groups of three to four teachers. Thus, at least 35 individuals were interviewed in each school. Interviews were designed to obtain information on major categories in the conceptual framework, school factors, student commitment, and teacher commitment. However, since the study was exploratory, an open-ended approach was used in order to elaborate subcategories and clarify the meaning of developing concepts. Firestone and Rosenblum (1988) also found that teacher commitment to students

leads to strong emotional bonds with students, often a personal caring for them. When teachers share commitment, the result can be a positive climate where students feel comfortable and wanted. Moreover, dropouts perceive schools as a place where teachers do not care about them (Wehlage and Rutter, 1986) and perform better in smaller situations where teachers are more committed to helping them.

The attitudes of significant others may play a vital role in the decision making process of the pregnant adolescent. That significant other may be a teacher or school administrator and the decision of whether or not to remain in school may rest with the attitude that school personnel may hold toward pregnant and parenting teens. Brazzell and Accock (1988) studied 129 female patients at three family planning clinics in South Central Indiana. The findings indicated that prior to an actual pregnancy, adolescents considered the attitude of significant others at least as important as their own aspirations in determining how they might resolve a pregnancy. These findings might have some implications as far as the importance of teacher/student relationships.

Student Attitudes Toward School

Fetro (1985) observed populations that revealed adolescent feelings of alienation associated with problems and deviant behaviors. The study found that many young people are feeling separated, alone, out of control, and unsure of what is right or wrong. A measure of alienation could have many practical

applications to educators, school psychologists, school social workers, administrators, and parents. It was suggested that awareness of these feelings could assist school personnel in the development of programs and policies which could better meet the emotional and social needs of young adolescents as well as increase networking among these professionals and parents.

Hall and Taylor (1984) cited the importance of pregnant adolescents' perceptions of themselves (self-concept) and their perceptions of how they are viewed by others (self-esteem) by comparing pregnant adolescents' self-concept and the self-concept of their nullipara (never pregnant) peers. The results indicated that self-concept and self-esteem might be important factors in black high school student pregnancies. The pregnant black adolescent did not feel that out-of-wedlock pregnancy had the degree of stigma attached to it that one might suppose. However, greater father absence, more school absenteeism, lower socioeconomic status, lower scholastic achievement, and a large percentage of black teenagers occurred in the pregnant group than in the nullipara group.

Not only are feelings of alienation from teachers significant, researchers Schorr and Schorr (1989) found that adolescent mothers who have not completed high school and are unemployed and have low levels of support tend to be hostile, indifferent, and rejecting of their children. By contrast, the teenage mother with high levels of support are more affectionate in comforting, cuddling, playing with and praising of their children. Being brought up by a

mother living alone and in social isolation is associated with early school failure, truancy, fighting in school, dropping out of school, and childbearing in early adolescence.

Schools Response to Adolescent Childbearing

Young and Roth (1982) sought to identify schools offering a program of family life/sex education. An attempt was also made to determine if schools which offered such programs could be distinguished from those that did not based on responses of school officials to a set of attitudinal statements. The findings of this study indicated a strong support for sex education programs; this was particularly true among persons under the age of 40.

Nwanne (1986) examined the attitudes of Texas public school principals toward the United States Supreme Court decision "Cleveland Board of Education vs. LaFleur," which prohibited local school boards from establishing mandatory cutoff dates for pregnant teachers to stop and/or return to work. The findings indicated that variables such as sex and the number of years of experience of principals tended to influence their attitude toward the court decision. In all analyses, a majority of the principals (69.8 percent) agreed with the Court decision. However, female principals were more in agreement with the Court decision than male principals.

According to a study by Dunkle and Nash (1989), it was reported that pregnant and parenting students are vulnerable and sensitive to even subtle changes in the school environment. Subtle changes often lead them to leaving school early. Dunkle and Nash

further states that although often overlooked in discussions of at-risk students, over 40 percent of all girls who drop out of school cite pregnancy or marriage as their reason. Stabilizing the school environment and making it more hospitable for these pregnant and parenting students can make a significant dent in dropout statistics as well as provide these young parents with the education they and their families need to rise above the poverty level.

Demographics and Adolescent Childbearing

National Research Council (1987) found that blacks report a greater tolerance for sexual activity outside a marital relationship than whites; they rate marriage as less important than whites; and they perceive a greater tolerance in their neighborhoods for childbearing outside marriage. Further, the National Research Center in analysis of data from the 1981 National Survey of Children attempted to examine the sources of racial differences in levels of sexual activity and age of initiation of sexual activity. They used a variety of indicators of socioeconomic status and social disadvantage. It was only possible to reduce a small portion of the racial difference in the incidence of sexual experience between black and white teenagers. The investigators found high proportions of sexually experienced teenagers among blacks of the same social background who attended racially isolated schools compared with those who attended schools with white students. Among blacks and whites who attended racially diverse schools, there were only modest differences in the probability of sexual intercourse. In addition,

there was some evidence that the racial composition of the school was also associated with differences in the acceptability of premarital childbearing. To some extent school segregation is, undoubtedly, a surrogate measure for low socioeconomic status among many black teenagers and reflects the pervasive conditions of disadvantage that characterize the neighborhood environments in which they live. In addition, there is a strong relationship between a mother's sexual and fertility experience as a teenager and that of her daughter. The earlier the mother's first sexual experience and first birth, the earlier the daughter's experience. Other family factors that appear to affect the level and quality of parental support and control, and perhaps in turn may influence sexual behavior among teenagers, include family intactness, family composition, and mother's age at marriage. Several studies have shown that girls in nonintact female-headed families are more likely to become sexually experienced at an earlier age than those in two-parent families. Similarly, the larger the family (the more siblings present), the more likely that an older sibling will be sexually active and provide a model for younger siblings (National Research Council, 1987).

Adolescent Childbearing and School Policies

Most schools do not have clear policies concerning pregnant and parenting students. When policies exist, student rights seem to be based on the attitudes and moral values of middle-class administrators and teachers. According to Dunkle and Nash (1989), the school climate — as measured by school policies and practices as

well as staff attitudes — is chilly for pregnant and parenting teenagers. The principal controls the climate of the overall school. Countless others — from the gatekeeping school secretary to counselors and teachers — set the temperature from room-to-room. State and local policymakers create the educational climate. In addressing the needs of pregnant and parenting teens, Dunkle and Nash (1989) observed the climate affecting pregnant and parenting teens in our nation's schools. The Equality Center of Washington, D.C. during 1987 surveyed twelve diverse schools across the country. Their goal was to identify policies, practices, and attitudes that help or hinder continued schooling by pregnant and parenting teenagers. They examined the degree to which schools' treatment of pregnant and parenting students complies with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. They also examined how far beyond the "letter of the law" schools have gone, initiating steps on their own to encourage pregnant and parenting teenagers to stay in school. Dunkle and Nash surveyed eighteen preselected schools nationwide. The results from the survey of attitudes towards pregnant and parenting teens yielded the following information:

1. Eighty-three percent of schools surveyed reported that their principal never or only sometimes mentions teen pregnancy and parenting in the context of dropouts. None reported that their principals always mention teen pregnancy and parenting.

2. Only one in three schools reported that efforts to keep students from dropping out of school always or usually include a focus on teen pregnancy and parenting. Two-thirds of a day dropout prevention efforts either never or only sometimes include teen pregnancy and parenting.
3. Only 17 percent of the schools kept attendance, dropout or enrollment statistics on pregnant and parenting teens.
4. Pregnant students often disappear from school before graduation. Of the ten high schools surveyed, half reported only five or fewer pregnant girls in last year's graduating class, and another 40 percent reported that they do not know how many pregnant girls have graduated. These low figures are not due to small school size; half of these schools have enrollment of 1,000 to 2,000 and one has over 7,500 students.
5. Fifty-five percent of the respondents reported that sometimes teachers think pregnant and parenting students are morally or intellectually inferior.
6. Almost half (45 percent) reported that teachers or school personnel view pregnant girls and teen mothers more harshly than they view teen fathers, with 9

percent saying that they usually view girls more harshly than boys.

7. Twenty percent of the high schools sometimes treated unmarried pregnant students differently from married pregnant students.
8. Only 50 percent reported that pregnant students with good grades always receive lots of help from teachers or counselors to stay in school. This percentage dropped to 42 percent for pregnant girls with poor grades.

Compton, Duncan, and Hruska (1987) found that many educators have little experience in working with pregnant and parenting adolescents and may be uncertain about the school's expectations. They also found the formulation of guidelines is imperative to both protect and offer clarity to the entire faculty and staff, and the school's stance with regard to pregnant and parenting students should be clearly spelled out. For example, the policy of the Boston School System supports the development of a full range of academic and support service programs for school-age parents and parents-to-be in the Boston Public Schools. The School Committee believes that such programs are needed in order to assist and encourage all students to achieve the academic and vocational skills required to reach their maximum potential (Compton, Duncan, and Hruska, 1987).

Summary of the Literature Review

The research reviewed indicated that a significant number of children are being raised by adolescent parents. Children born to these young mothers, often uneducated, unskilled, and unmarried, have a higher incidence of physical, emotional, and intellectual handicaps. Further, the research also suggested that there is a relationship between teenage pregnancy and dropping out of school. This combination of problems has the business and educational community concerned.

The school climate appears to have an effect on whether or not pregnant and parenting students drop out of school. Feelings of alienation and separation from the mainstream also appeared to have an effect on pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, relationships between teachers and students should be looked at closely when addressing issues related to students leaving school prior to graduation.

According to Firestone and Rosenblum (1988) when many teachers share in the commitment, the result can be a positive climate where students feel comfortable and wanted. The literature also suggested it is the socioeconomic background, not race of these students that contributed to the feelings of hopelessness brought on by conditions of poverty (Lewis, 1990, p. 9). It is also not the age of the mother at the time of the baby's birth, instead research suggests, however, it is the environment in which the teenagers lives that promote hopelessness (National Research Council, 1987).

In general, poverty seems to lower a person's self-concept making them vulnerable to the many ills in our society. This effect is particularly harmful when applied to adolescents, especially those that are pregnant and parenting.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of selected demographic and school factors of school personnel on their attitudes toward pregnant and parenting students. The study also attempted to investigate the relationship between attitudes of school personnel and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

Projected Relationship of the Variables

This research study was based upon the assumption that beliefs or attitudes influence behavior. In addition, it is recognized that beliefs or attitudes toward a situation influence perceptions, and conversely perceptions of a situation are influenced by beliefs or attitudes (Nwanne, 1986). In attempting to examine this relationship, therefore, this study examined school staff attitudes toward pregnant and parenting students and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

The variables studied were age, gender, number of years of experience, position and race. Other variables studied were

socioeconomic status of the students and the pregnancy index.

Figure 1 illustrates the position of these variables.

Conceptual Support for the Interlinkages of the Variables

The literature does not specifically examine the relationship of each of the independent variables selected on the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students; however, research does show that each of the independent variables can influence the attitudes of individuals.

In examining the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, Young and Roth (1982) found that support for sex education classes was particularly strong among persons under the age of 40. Nwanne (1986) found that gender and years of experience tended to influence the attitudes of principals toward the court decision that granted women maternity leaves. Sadker and Sadker (1986) found that teachers show preference to male students in the classroom. The National Research Council (1987) found that black families seem to be more supportive of young mothers and are more tolerant of unmarried parenthood. Dunkle and Nash (1989) found that limited-English proficient students who were also pregnant faced additional barriers in school.

In addition to the research, interviews were conducted by the researcher with school personnel. These interviews suggested that certain factors might influence the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Definition of the Variables

The definitions are solely for clarification of this study. The operational definitions of the variables were:

Variable 1: *Age* – the chronological years of personnel (from ages 21-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, 61 and over).

Variable 2: *Gender* – the sex of the individual (male or female).

Variable 3: *Race* – the ethnic group to which the individual belongs (African American, Caucasian, Asian, Hispanic or other).

Variable 4: *Number of Years of Experience* – the amount of time individuals have held their present position (from 0-10, 11-20, 21-30, 31 and over).

Variable 5: *Position* – the job currently held by school personnel (administrator, teacher, or professional support staff).

Variable 6: *Attitudes* – opinions held by school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students with respect to courses and programs, grades, scheduling flexibility, attendance, honor and academic recognition, student records and recommendation, expulsion/suspension, job placement and counseling, extracurricular activities, and childcare.

Variable 7: *School Treatment* – how school personnel translates into action school policy that affects pregnant and parenting students with regard to courses and programs, grades, scheduling flexibility, attendance, honor and academic recognition, student records, expulsion/suspension, recommendations, job placement and counseling, extracurricular activities, and childcare.

Variable 8: *Socioeconomic status* – the percentage of students receiving free and reduced lunches.

Variable 9: *Pregnancy index* – the percentage of pregnant and parenting students at the five sample urban high schools.

Hypotheses

The following are the hypotheses which this study addressed.

1. There is no significant relationship between age and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.
2. There is no significant relationship between gender and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.
3. There is no significant relationship between race and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.
4. There is no significant relationship between years of experience and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.
5. There is no significant relationship between position and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

6. There is no significant difference between socioeconomic status of the student body and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.
7. There is no significant difference between the pregnancy index and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.
8. There is no significant relationship between the attitude of teachers and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.
9. There is no significant relationship between the attitude of administrators and professional support staff and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

Limitations of the Study

Because of the sensitive nature of this study, the number of respondents was smaller than anticipated. Because the size of the respondent sample and the type of study being conducted, the findings are not generalizable. However, they should yield information which provides a basis for a larger scale study of the sample issue.

Summary of the Theoretical Framework

This research investigation to determine if there were any significant relationships between how schools translate policies into

action that affect pregnant and parenting students and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students was predicated on both theory and observation. Research data with selected school personnel indicated a relationship between attitudes and the independent variables of the study.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Research Design

The research design was based on a descriptive method concerned with discovering causal relationships. Six urban high schools from the Southeastern United States were randomly selected from a stratified sample to participate in the study (see Appendices).

Description of the Setting

Employees of an urban school system located in the Southeastern United States made up the population to be studied and from that population the sample was selected.

Sampling Procedures

In order to ensure adequate representation of the different types of schools in the population, schools were first stratified using the number of reduced and free school lunches. This placed them into three distinct economic levels – namely, upper, middle, and lower socioeconomic levels. From each level, two schools were randomly selected (see Table 1 in the Appendices).

From each school, 20 percent of the teachers were randomly selected and the entire administrative and professional support staff

to participate in the study. Table 2 presents the composition of this sample (see Appendices).

It was not necessary to stratify the schools based on whether or not there were any pregnant and parenting students attending the six urban high schools because this school system allows pregnant and parenting students to attend school. Consequently, each school had some pregnant and parenting students.

Of the six urban high schools which were randomly selected from a stratified sample of sixteen high schools, two were comprehensive high schools and the other four were conventional high schools. All of the schools were magnet schools and were predominantly black. The school size ranged from 865 to more than 2,000 students. One school declined to participate in the study.

Description of the Instrument

The survey consisted of 71 items divided into two sections. The first part requested background information. The second part referred to treatment of pregnant and parenting students.

The survey items covered courses and programs; grades; attendance, expulsion/suspension and scheduling flexibility; honors and academic recognition; student records, recommendations, job placement and counseling; extracurricular activities, and childcare.

The survey was compiled by Margaret Dunkle and Margaret Nash of the Equality Center. The researcher modified the survey to meet the needs of the new population to be studied.

The face validity was established by a panel of experts who had different levels of knowledge in the area of teenage pregnancy and childbirth. The panel included a social worker, an army colonel, one principal, a school nurse, and two members of Student Support Services. The researcher and an advisor consulted with the experts reviewing each item. Item Scale Correlation was employed to seek construct validity after surveys were collected, analyzing each survey item response. There were no survey items deleted based on the analysis. Validity was established and interpretations were made based on the data collected.

Data Collection Procedures

The instrument was mailed to the sample population and collected in two days by a contact person. The contact person selected was asked to mail the surveys to the researcher after collecting them.

Statistical Applications

Data were treated using statistical tools geared at providing answers to the hypotheses and research questions previously stated in Chapter III. Pearson r Correlation was used to determine the relationship between the independent variables and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Analysis of Variance was used in determining if there was a significant difference between the attitude and school treatment by school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Also, if there were any differences between the pregnancy index and socio-

economic status of students and the attitudes of school personnel. The level of significance for testing the hypotheses was set at .05 level of probability.

Summary of Methods and Procedures

A descriptive design was used in this study. The population studied was randomly selected from an urban school system in the Southeastern United States. Six high schools were randomly selected to participate in the study.

The instrument consisted of items divided into two parts. The first part requested background information. The second part referred to treatment of pregnant and parenting students.

The survey was mailed to the sample population and collected by a contact person who was selected by the researcher. The researcher surveyed the schools during spring of 1990-91. The statistical tools selected to provide answers to the hypothesis and research questions were the Pearson r Correlation, Frequency Analysis and Analysis of Variance.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among specific demographic factors which may influence the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Furthermore, this study proposed to determine if there was a relationship between the attitudes of school personnel and the translation of school policies into action, that affect pregnant and parenting students.

The independent variables were examined to determine if a relationship existed between and among the variables that were studied. The independent variables studied were age, gender, race, experience, and position. Two additional independent variables were also examined which were: socioeconomic status and pregnancy index. An analysis of each variable was performed separately based on the null hypothesis. Pearson r Correlation was used in analyzing this statistical data. Analysis of Variance was applied to indicate differences between attitudes of school personnel and their interpretations of school policies, and to determine if there were any differences between the pregnancy index and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and

parenting students. As a part of the analysis of the data, the level of significance was set at .05.

A total of 8 administrators, 37 teachers and 18 professional support staff from five urban high schools responded to the survey. Table 1 provides a description of the composition of respondents and the percent of the respondents from the sample are listed by school.

Table 1
Percent of Respondents Per School
 (N = 63)

School	Percent
1	42.9
2	12.0
3	14.3
4	12.7
5	11.1
Total	100.0

Summary statistics in the form of the probability coefficient were used to determine if the null hypotheses were accepted or rejected.

To quantify the results of the questionnaire survey, the numerical values 1, 2, 3, and 4 were assigned to 23 survey items, and the numerical values 4, 3, 2, and 1 to 42 survey items. Respondents were asked to answer each item on a 4-point Likert Scale using Always (A), Usually (U), Sometimes (S), and Never (N). Below is an sample question from the survey.

Circle the correct response.

Always (A) Usually (U) Sometimes (S) Never (N)

Pregnant and parenting students

	<u>Should be</u>				<u>Are</u>				
1.	A	U	S	(N)	A	U	S	(N)	barred from certain courses.
	1	2	3	4	4	3	2	1	

Note: The higher the response in the should be column, the more positive the response; while the lower the response in the are column, the more positive the response. Except for items 3-6, 9, 11, 16-18, 20-24, 26-29, 32-36, 39-44 51-61, 64-65, which are the reverse.

The results of this analysis are reported in Tables 2-15.

Analysis of Findings

The focus of the first research question was to assess the relationship between age and the attitudes of school personnel

toward pregnant and parenting students. The 2 provides data on hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between age and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Table 2
Comparison of School Personnel Ages and Attitudes
(N = 63)

Ages	Percent	Attitude Mean
21-30	7.9	3.00
31-40	9.5	2.99
41-50	49.2	2.98
51-60	25.4	2.92
61 and over	6.3	2.97
Missing	1.6	N/A

As shown in Table 2, 49 percent of the sample is represented in the third age range of 41-50. All of the attitude

mean scores are very close to one another. However, based on the attitude mean, the age category 51-60 yielded the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. The youngest age category 21-30 had the least favorable attitude (mean of 3.00) toward pregnant and parenting students.

Table 3
Correlation of School Personnel Attitudes and Ages
 (N = 62)

p	.307
r	-.0652

Using .05 significance level, the null hypothesis was accepted because .307 probability coefficient is greater than .05. Table 3 presented a very weak inverse relationship ($r = -.0652$) between age and attitudes of school personnel. The data in this study do not reveal a significant relationship between age and attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, hypothesis one is accepted.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between gender and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Hypothesis two examines the relationship between gender and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Table 4 presents the composition of the sample based on gender.

Table 4
Sexual Makeup of Respondents
 (N = 63)

Gender	Percent	Attitude mean
Male	44.4	2.94
Female	55.6	2.99

There were 10 percent more female respondents in the sample than males. However, based on the attitude mean, the male respondents showed a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students.

Table 5
Correlation of School Personnel and Attitudes
 (N = 63)

p	.238
r	.0916

Again, the level of significance was set at .05. Table 5 presents a very weak correlation ($r = .0916$) between gender and the attitudes of school personnel. The findings in this study do not reveal a significant relationship between gender and attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. hypothesis 2 is accepted.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship
 between race and the attitudes of
 school personnel toward pregnant
 and parenting students.

Hypothesis three sought to examine the relationship between race and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Table 6 presents a summary of the sample based on race.

Table 6
Distribution by Race of Responding Personnel
 (N = 63)

Race	Percent	Attitude mean
African American	76.2	2.93
Caucasian	22.2	3.12
Asian	1.6	3.04
Hispanic	0.0	0.00
Other	0.0	0.00

As shown in Table 6, the majority of the respondents were African Americans. There were no respondents recorded as Hispanic or as other. It can also be seen in Table 6 that the attitude mean for African Americans yielded a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. This finding is based solely on the scoring of the survey and therefore cannot be generalized. These findings substantiate those of the National Research Council (1987) that blacks report a greater tolerance for sexual activity outside a marital relationship than whites, and they perceive a greater tolerance in their neighborhoods for childbearing outside of marriage.

Table 7
Correlation of School Personnel Attitudes and Race
 (N = 63)

p	.018
r	.2657

At the level of significance of .05, the null hypothesis was rejected because the probability coefficient of .018 is less than the level of .05 established for significance. According to the analysis of the data, there is a significant relationship between race and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. However, Table 7 shows a weak correlation ($r = .2657$) between race and the attitudes of school personnel.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between years of experience and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Hypothesis four examines the relationship between years of experience and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. It can be seen in Table 8 the composition of school personnel based on years of experience.

Table 8
Distribution of Employment Experience
of School Personnel
(N = 63)

Years of Experience	Percent	Attitude mean
0-10	9.5	3.09
11-20	30.2	2.94
21-30	49.2	3.02
31 and over	11.1	2.73

Table 8 shows that 49 percent of the responding school personnel has 21-30 years of experience. However, the years of experience category of 31 and over yielded the most favorable attitudes toward pregnant and parenting students which was based on the attitude mean of 2.73.

Table 9
Correlation of Participant Experience and Attitudes
(N = 6)

p	.079
r	-.1801

Table 9 presents a very weak inverse correlation ($r = -.1801$) between years of experience with the attitudes of school personnel. Therefore, based on the analysis of the data, years of experience did not indicate a significant relationship with attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. At the .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was accepted because the probability coefficient is greater than .05. Therefore, hypothesis four is accepted.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship
 between position and the attitudes of
 school personnel toward pregnant
 and parenting students.

Hypothesis five sought to determine the relationship between position and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. The composition of the respondents by position can be seen in Table 10.

Table 10
Types of Positions of Respondents
 (N = 63)

Position	Percent	Attitude mean
Administrator, Professional Support Personnel	41.3	2.93
Teachers	58.7	3.00

Between the two groups of school personnel, the position most represented was that of teachers. To ensure more accurate results, and because the respondents were so few, the researcher decided to combine the administrative and professional support groups. Based on position, it can be seen in Table 10 that the administrators and professional support staff yielded the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. One explanation for this finding could have been that school counselors were included in the professional support group. Counselors are trained to be sensitive to the needs of all students. The attitude mean in relation to this position was 2.93.

Table 11
Correlation Between Types of Positions and
Attitudes of School Personnel
 (N = 63)

p	.265
r	-.0805

Table 11 presents a very weak yet inverse correlation ($r = -.0805$) between position and the attitudes of school personnel. The data show no significant relationship between position and attitudes of school personnel. The null hypothesis was accepted because the probability coefficient of .265 was greater than the level of significance.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between socioeconomic status of the student body and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Hypothesis five sought to examine the relationship between socioeconomic status of the student body and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Using the number of students who receive free and reduced lunches,

Table 1 (see Appendices) presents the schools in the sample based on the socioeconomic status of the students. Mean scores were also used to determine which school (high, medium, or low socioeconomic status) had the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. Low socioeconomic schools were schools number 1 and 2. Medium socioeconomic schools were schools 3 and 4. School 5 was the sole high socioeconomic school. Table 12 presents the mean scores of the high, medium, and low socioeconomic schools.

Table 12
Difference Between School Socioeconomic Status of the
Student Body and Respondents Attitudes
 (N = 5)

<u>Socio-Economic Status of Schools</u>		<u>Respondents Mean Attitude</u>			
Low		2.95			
Medium		3.08			
High		2.82			

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean	F ratio	F probability
Between groups	2	.3710	.1855	2.64	.079
Within groups	59	4.14	.0702	NA	NA
Total	61	4.51	NA	NA	NA

In Table 12, the high socioeconomic school was reported as having the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. It can also be seen in Table 12 that the significance of $F = .079$. With the level of significance being set at .05, the significance of F is greater than the level of significance which is interpreted to mean that there is no significant difference between the socioeconomic levels of the student body and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, hypothesis six was accepted.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference
 between the pregnancy index and the
 attitudes of school personnel toward
 pregnant and parenting students.

Hypothesis seven sought to determine if there were any differences between the pregnancy index and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. The researcher was unable to secure approximate numbers of pregnant and parenting students at schools 3, 4, and 5. Analysis of Variance was used to determine if there are any differences between attitudes of school personnel based on the pregnancy indexes at schools 1 and 2. Table 1 presents the percentage of pregnant and parenting students (see Appendices).

Table 13

Comparison of Pregnancy Index and Respondents Attitudes

(N = 62)

<u>School</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>	<u>Attitude Mean</u>	<u>Pregnancy Index</u>
1	860	2.99	29.07
2	1,171	2.89	14.1

df	1
F	1.156
Sig. of F	0.289

As shown in Table 13, the attitude mean was 2.89 at school 2. The pregnancy index at school 2 was 14.1 percent of the students, which is based on the total enrollment of 1,171 students. It was concluded that the personnel at school 2 has a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. Additional findings are as follows: The F-statistic is 1.156 and the significance of F is 0.289. Further, the significance of F (0.289) is greater than .05 level of significance, which is interpreted to mean that there is no significant difference between the pregnancy index and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Hypothesis seven is accepted.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant relationship between the attitude of administrators and professional staff and how schools translate school policies affecting pregnant and parenting students into action.

Hypothesis eight sought to examine if there was a relationship between the attitude of administrators and professional support staff and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students. Analysis of Variance was used to determine these differences. Table 14 presents the analysis of attitudes and school treatment by administrators and professional support staff toward pregnant and parenting students.

Table 14

Correlation of Attitudes of Administrators and Professional Support Staff and Their Translation of School Treatment

(N = 63)

Staff Type	Attitude Mean	School Policy Operational Mean	r	p
Administrators and Professional Support Staff	2.92	2.85	.209	.1731

In addition to the Analysis of Variance, the Pearson r Correlation was also applied in analyzing the data. The probability coefficient is .209 which is greater than the .05 level of significance. Table 14 presents a weak relationship ($r = .1731$) between attitudes of administrators and professional support staff and their translation of school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, there is no significant relationship between the attitudes of administrators and professional support staff and their translation of school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant relationship between the attitude of teachers toward pregnant and parenting students and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

Relevant data were also collected to present the relationship between the attitudes of teachers and their translation of school policies which affect pregnant and parenting students. Based on the analysis of the data, there is a relationship between attitudes of teachers and their translation of school policies into action.

Table 15
Correlation of Attitudes of Teachers and Their
Translation of School Policies
 (N = 37)

Staff Type	Attitude Mean	School Policy Translation Mean	r	p
Teachers	3.00	2.84	.030	.3128

The probability coefficient is .030. The p value of .030 is less than the level of significance of .05. This means that there is a significant relationship between attitudes of teachers and their translation of school policies into action. Although Table 15 presents a weak relationship ($r = .3128$) between teachers' attitude and their translation of school policies, the attitude mean is 3.00 and school treatment mean is 2.84. Based on the findings, teachers' translation of school policies tend to be more favorable toward pregnant and parenting students than their attitudes toward these students. In other words, teachers tend to be

knowledgeable of policies that affect pregnant and parenting students even if they do not support them.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to relate specific demographic factors which may influence the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Furthermore, this study proposed to determine if there was a relationship between the attitudes of school personnel and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

The independent variables studied were age and gender, race, experience, and position. Other independent variables were socioeconomic status and pregnancy index.

A total of 8 administrators, 37 teachers and 18 professional support staff from five urban high schools responded to the survey. A detailed explanation of the research findings, conclusions, recommendations, and implications appear in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to examine specific demographic factors which may influence the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Further, this study proposed to determine if there was a relationship between school personnel attitudes and the way school personnel felt students were being treated who were pregnant and parenting students.

The research design was based on a descriptive method concerned with discovering causal relationships. The research methodology included the use of a questionnaire survey.

Findings

The purpose of this section is to present the findings in terms of the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3. This study focused on the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

The hypothesis examined in testing the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students, and the

relationship between attitudes and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students were the following:

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between age and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

According to the findings of this study, the attitude mean of 2.92 of school personnel aged 51-60 had the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students, even though the age category of 41-50 had twice the number of respondents. Age did not reveal a significant relationship with attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was accepted. However, the research literature revealed that age did have an impact on one's attitude. Young and Roth (1982) found that support for sex education classes was particularly strong among persons under age 40.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between gender and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Based on the findings related to the data analysis, males respondents are more favorable toward pregnant and parenting students. Gender did not reveal a significant relationship with attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was accepted. The research literature stated that, Nwanne (1986) found that gender tended to influence the attitudes of principal toward the court decision that granted women the right to maternity leaves. Sadker and Sadker (1986) also found that teachers show preference to males in the classroom. Both findings suggests a possible link between gender and attitudes. According to Earle (1987) teachers' responses to students have also been found to favor male academic and independence. Sadker and Sadker (1986) found girls were more likely to be invisible members of the classroom.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between race and the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Based on the findings, African Americans appeared to have a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was rejected. The findings substantiate the research literature. One explanation could be that based on the attitude scale, the way the participants answered the question, the lower the scale the more favorable the attitude. The National

Research Council (1987) communicated that blacks report a greater tolerance for sexual activity outside a marital relationship than whites, and they perceive a greater tolerance and their neighborhood for childbearing outside of marriage. According to the research there is a significant relationship between race and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. In support of how race impacts attitudes, Dunkle and Nash (1989) found that limited-English proficient students who were also pregnant faced additional barriers in school.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between years of experience and the attitude of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

The category of number of years of experience for school personnel's most represented was 21-30 years. However, the years of experience category of 31 and over yielded the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. There is indication that years of experience did not reveal a significant relationship with the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was accepted. However, the research literature revealed a relationship. Nwanne (1986) found that years of experience tended to influence the attitudes of principals toward the court decision that granted women maternity leave.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between position and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Based on the mean scores, teachers tended to have the least favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was accepted. In a study conducted by Sadker and Sadker (1986), girls were more likely to be invisible members of the classroom. They found that teachers talk to them less and give them fewer rewards. This is significant because girls become pregnant. However, position did not yield a significant relationship with attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between socioeconomic status and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

According to findings, low socioeconomic status schools appeared to have the least favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. The null hypothesis was accepted because the probability coefficient was greater than the level of significance.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference between the pregnancy index and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students.

According to the data analysis, there was no significant difference between the pregnancy index and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. Therefore, hypothesis 7 was accepted. However, school 2 appeared to have a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students based on the mean score. One explanation could be that teachers are not as overwhelmed with the numbers of pregnant a parenting students at school 2. School 2 had 14.1 percent of 1,171 students and school 1, 29.07 percent of 860 students.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant relationship between the attitude of administrators and professional support staff toward pregnant and parenting students and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

Relevant data were collected to present the relationship between administrators and professional support staff's attitude toward pregnant and parenting students and how schools translate school policies into action that affect these students. The school

treatment mean suggested that administrators and professional support staff are more tolerant of these students. However, their translation of school policies into action are not as favorable. The probability coefficient was greater than the level of significance, therefore, based on the data analysis there is no significant relationship between the attitude of administrators and professional support staff and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant relationship between the attitude of teachers toward pregnant and parenting students and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

The probability coefficient was less than the level of significance; therefore, there is a significant difference between the attitudes of teachers and their interpretation of school policies. The mean scores suggested that teachers' translation of school policies into action tend to be more favorable toward pregnant and parenting students than their attitudes toward these students.

Conclusion

The conclusion based on the analysis of data gathered through this study could be drawn as follows: The researcher found that

African American respondents tended to be more supportive of pregnant and parenting students. One explanation for this could be that respondents had a greater chance of personal identification with the students who also were of the same race.

The researcher also found that there was a relationship between attitudes of teachers and their translation of school policies into action. Teachers' translation of school policies tended to be more favorable toward pregnant and parenting students than their attitudes toward these students. The correlation here was weak which might imply that further investigation is needed.

The attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students were underrepresented because of the low number of surveys returned for analysis. Therefore, it may be assumed that the findings of this study can not be generalized even to other populations.

Implications

The literature do not specifically present a relationship between each of the independent variables and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students. However, there was a relationship between age, gender, race, and years of experience.

The literature suggested a causal relationship. Therefore, it might prove necessary to improve the relationship between school personnel and students. Teachers spend between six and seven

hours a day with students. It seems likely that teachers would have an impact on students. According to Wittenberg (1988) many at risk youth feel very strongly that teachers do not take time to help them overcome their problems, that teachers do not care, and that teachers do not like them. Further, Peng and Takia (1983) found that students' inability to get along with teachers was a significant factor in their decision to leave school.

The analysis of the data suggests many implications. Because the age category 51-60 yielded the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students and, the youngest group had the least favorable attitude one could conclude that the more experienced personnel have become more sensitive to these students because of their maturity. However, this older group of personnel are at the end of their careers which would mean they may not get a chance to assist these students. These findings suggest that older teachers be paired with younger teachers not only assisting with teaching skills but working with problems associated with high-risk students.

Males tended to have a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. Females are usually taught that pregnancy outside of marriage is wrong. However, males experience different attitudes toward sex outside of marriage. Therefore, males might feel that sex outside of marriage is acceptable behavior, thus, not having negative feelings toward these students.

African Americans appeared to have a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. One explanation could be related to the scoring of the survey. Another explanation could have been that the majority of the teachers were African American and all of the students were of the same race. People tend to be more sensitive to the needs of people of their same race.

The years of experience category of 31 and over yielded the most favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. This finding corresponds with the oldest age group which also yielded the most favorable attitude. This finding also suggest that the more experienced personnel tend to have a more favorable attitude.

Teachers tended to have the least favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students among the group surveyed. This finding implies that teachers, because they spend more time with students, maybe feeling overwhelmed with the large number of pregnant and parenting students in the surveyed schools. We must also remember that more of the respondents were females, and females tended to have the least favorable attitude in the gender category.

Administrators and professional support staffs' translation of school policy into action was found to be more favorable. However, their attitudes toward pregnant and parenting students were not as favorable. This could mean that even though administrators and professional support staffs' attitude toward pregnant and parenting students are not favorable, they do abide by the regulations of

Title IX. Teachers' attitudes toward these students are least favorable. However, they do feel that they should be treated fairly.

The low socioeconomic schools appeared to have the least favorable attitude. Their pregnancy index was probably higher. Therefore, the personnel again might be overwhelmed by the number of pregnant and parenting students.

When looking at the pregnancy index, school 2 appeared to have a more favorable attitude toward pregnant and parenting students. Again, one explanation could be that there are fewer pregnant and parenting students at school 2.

Based solely on the findings of this study, an African American male, 51-60 years old, with 30 or more years experience, at a high socioeconomic school, who is an administrator or professional support personnel in a school with a low pregnancy index, would be the most favorable to assist pregnant and parenting students.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that:

1. School personnel increase their awareness of issues facing urban adolescent females.
2. Staff development classes be made available addressing the needs of pregnant and parenting adolescents.
3. Interpretation of Title IX as it relates to policies affecting pregnant and parenting students become a part of new teacher orientation and made available to all school personnel.

4. A more extensive study be made specifically addressing the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students, because the literature revealed a possible link between attitudes with age, gender, and years of experience.
5. Schools be monitored to assure students of nondiscriminatory acts.
6. Day care be offered on school sites.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students influence school personnel interpretation of and adherence to school policy. The design of the study involved seven administrators, thirty-seven teachers, and seventeen professional support staff from six randomly selected urban high schools. The Pearson r Correlation Coefficient, Analysis of Variance, and Frequency Analysis was applied to the data. The level of significance was set at .05. The findings were (1) there was a significant relationship between race and the attitudes of school personnel toward pregnant and parenting students and (2) there was a significant relationship between teachers attitudes and how schools translate school policies into action that affect pregnant and parenting students.

The study found that there was a relationship between attitudes of teachers and how schools translate into action school policies that affect pregnant and parenting students. The

researcher also found that based on the scoring of the survey African American respondents tended to be more supportive of pregnant and parenting students.

Based on the findings, it was recommended that: school personnel increase their awareness of issues facing urban adolescent females, staff development be made available to school personnel, and interpretation of Title IX as it related to policies affecting pregnant and parenting students become a part of new teacher orientation and made available to all school personnel.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Table 1
School Population

<u>School</u>	<u>Number of Students on Active Roll</u>	<u>Number of Students Reduced Lunch</u>	<u>Number of Students on Free Lunch</u>	<u>Pregnancy Index</u>
1	860	6%	79%	29.07
2	1,171	10%	75%	14.1
3	1,339	6%	20%	--
4	600	9%	57%	--
5	912	6%	57%	--

Appendix B

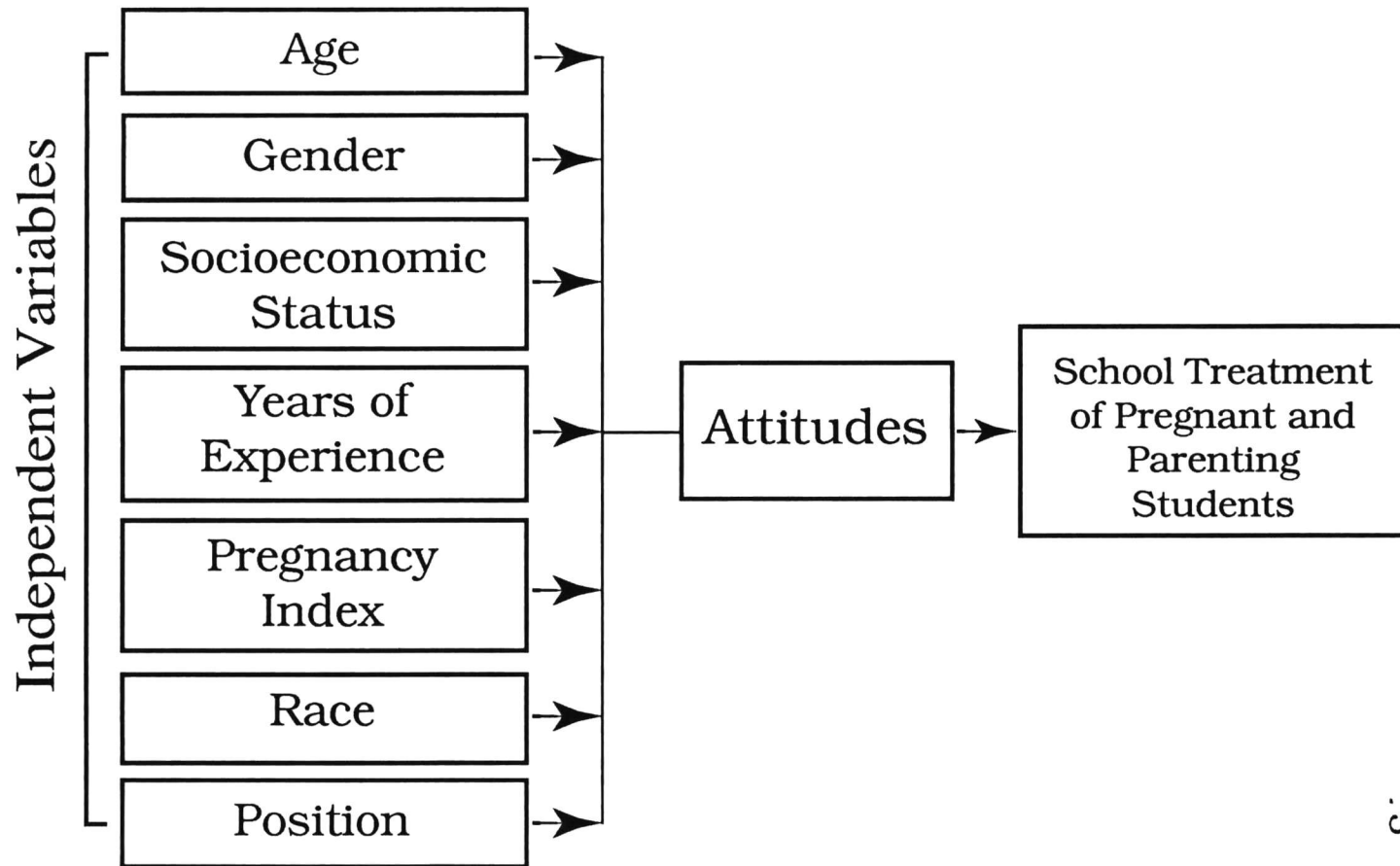
Table 2
School Demography

<u>School</u>	<u>Teachers</u>	<u>Administrative and Professional Support Personnel</u>
1	56	12
2	85	16
3	89	18
4	45	7
5	62	12

Appendix C

Table 3

Model of Theoretical Framework



Appendix D

Table 4

Stratified Sample of Urban High Schools

<u>School</u>	<u>Number of Students on Reduced Lunch</u>	<u>Number of Students on Free Lunch</u>
1	4%	91%
2	9%	66%
3	4%	92%
4	7%	80%
5	8%	55%
6	9%	72%
7	7%	84%
8	3%	78%
9	11%	72%
10	7%	20%
11	11%	53%
12	7%	62%
13	11%	77%
14	12%	56%
15	7%	69%
16	6%	71%

Appendix E

Title IX

30962

Federal Register / Vol. 45, No. 92 / Friday, May 9, 1980 / Rules and Regulations

Subpart E of this part if it were provided to employees of the recipient. This section shall not prohibit a recipient from providing any benefit or service which may be used by a different proportion of students of one sex than of the other, including family planning services. However, any recipient which provides full coverage health services shall provide gynecological care.

(Secs. 901, 902, Education Amendments of 1972, 86 Stat. 373, 374; 20 U.S.C. 1681, 1682)

§ 106.40 Marital or parental status.

(a) *Status generally.* A recipient shall not apply any rule concerning a student's actual or potential parental, family, or marital status which treats students differently on the basis of sex.

(b) *Pregnancy and related conditions.*

(1) A recipient shall not discriminate against any student, or exclude any student from its education program or activity, including any class or extracurricular activity, on the basis of such student's pregnancy, childbirth, false pregnancy, termination of pregnancy or recovery therefrom, unless the student requests voluntarily to participate in a separate portion of the program or activity of the recipient.

(2) A recipient may require such a student to obtain the certification of a physician that the student is physically and emotionally able to continue participation in the normal education program or activity so long as such a certification is required of all students for other physical or emotional conditions requiring the attention of a physician.

(3) A recipient which operates a portion of its education program or activity separately for pregnant students, admittance to which is completely voluntary on the part of the student as provided in paragraph (b)(1) of this section shall ensure that the instructional program in the separate program is comparable to that offered to non-pregnant students.

(4) A recipient shall treat pregnancy, childbirth, false pregnancy, termination of pregnancy and recovery therefrom in the same manner and under the same policies as any other temporary disability with respect to any medical or hospital-benefit, service, plan or policy which such recipient administers, operates, offers, or participates in with respect to students admitted to the recipient's educational program or activity.

(5) In the case of a recipient which does not maintain a leave policy for its students, or in the case of a student who does not otherwise qualify for leave under such a policy, a recipient shall treat pregnancy, childbirth, false

pregnancy, termination of pregnancy and recovery therefrom as a justification for a leave of absence for so long a period of time as is deemed medically necessary by the student's physician, at the conclusion of which the student shall be reinstated to the status which she held when the leave began.

(Secs. 901, 902, Education Amendments of 1972, 86 Stat. 373, 374; 20 U.S.C. 1681, 1682)

§ 106.41 Athletics.

(a) *General.* No person shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, be treated differently from another person or otherwise be discriminated against in any intercollegiate, intercollegiate, club or intramural athletics offered by a recipient, and no recipient shall provide any such athletics separately on such basis.

(b) *Separate teams.* Notwithstanding the requirements of paragraph (a) of this section, a recipient may operate or sponsor separate teams for members of each sex where selection for such teams is based upon competitive skill or the activity involved is a contact sport. However, where a recipient operates or sponsors a team in a particular sport for members of one sex but operates or sponsors no such team for members of the other sex, and athletic opportunities for members of that sex have previously been limited, members of the excluded sex must be allowed to try-out for the team offered unless the sport involved is a contact sport. For the purposes of this part, contact sports include boxing, wrestling, rugby, ice hockey, football, basketball and other sports the purpose of major activity of which involves bodily contact.

(c) *Equal opportunity.* A recipient which operates or sponsors intercollegiate, intercollegiate, club or intramural athletics shall provide equal athletic opportunity for members of both sexes. In determining whether equal opportunities are available the Director will consider, among other factors:

(1) Whether the selection of sports and levels of competition effectively accommodate the interests and abilities of members of both sexes;

(2) The provision of equipment and supplies;

(3) Scheduling of games and practice time;

(4) Travel and per diem allowance;

(5) Opportunity to receive coaching and academic tutoring;

(6) Assignment and compensation of coaches and tutors;

(7) Provision of locker rooms, practice and competitive facilities;

(8) Provision of medical and training facilities and services;

(9) Provision of housing and dining facilities and services;

(10) Publicity.

Unequal aggregate expenditures for members of each sex or unequal expenditures for male and female teams if a recipient operates or sponsors separate teams will not constitute noncompliance with this section, but the Assistant Secretary may consider the failure to provide necessary funds for teams for one sex in assessing equality of opportunity for members of each sex.

(d) *Adjustment period.* A recipient which operates or sponsors intercollegiate, intercollegiate, club or intramural athletics at the elementary school level shall comply fully with this section as expeditiously as possible but in no event later than one year from the effective date of this regulation. A recipient which operates or sponsors intercollegiate, intercollegiate, club or intramural athletics at the secondary or post-secondary school level shall comply fully with this section as expeditiously as possible but in no event later than three years from the effective date of this regulation.

(Secs. 901, 902, Education Amendments of 1972, 86 Stat. 373, 374; 20 U.S.C. 1681, 1682; and Sec. 944, Education Amendments of 1974, Pub. L. 93-380, 88 Stat. 684)

§ 106.42 Textbooks and curricular material.

Nothing in this regulation shall be interpreted as requiring or prohibiting or abridging in any way the use of particular textbooks or curricular materials.

(Secs. 901, 902, Education Amendments of 1972, 86 Stat. 373, 374; 20 U.S.C. 1681, 1682)

§ 106.43-106.50 (Reserved)

Subpart E—Discrimination on the Basis of Sex in Employment in Education Programs and Activities Prohibited

§ 106.51 Employment.

(a) *General.* (1) No person shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination in employment, or recruitment, consideration, or selection therefor, whether full-time or part-time, under any education program or activity operated by a recipient which receives or benefits from Federal financial assistance.

(2) A recipient shall make all employment decisions in any education program or activity operated by such recipient in a nondiscriminatory manner and shall not limit, segregate, or classify applicants or employees in any way

Appendix F

Part I**Background Information**

Please respond to the following items by checking the correct response.

1. *Age:*

- A. 21-30 _____
- B. 31-40 _____
- C. 41-50 _____
- D. 51-60 _____
- E. 61 and over _____

2. *Gender:*

- A. Male _____
- B. Female _____

3. *Race:*

- A. African-American _____
- B. Caucasian _____
- C. Asian _____
- D. Hispanic _____
- E. Other _____

4. *Number of years of experience*

- A. 0-10 _____
- B. 11-20 _____
- C. 21-30 _____
- D. 31 and over _____

5. *Position currently held:*

- A. Administrator _____
- B. Teacher _____
- C. Professional _____
- Support Personnel _____

Part II

The following items relate to pregnant and/or parenting students. Please indicate on the two scales provided whether or not you think pregnant students should be affected by the items listed and how these items may or may not affect these students in your school.

Respond to each item by marking the appropriate response in each column.

Always (A) *Usually (U)* *Sometimes (S)* *Never (N)*

Circle the correct letter response

Pregnant and/or parenting students:

	<u>Should be</u>	<u>Are</u>	
1.	A U S N	A U S N	barred from certain courses.
2.	A U S N	A U S N	required to have certification from a physician.
3.	A U S N	A U S N	allowed to substitute another course for physical education.
4.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to take only certain laboratory courses.
5.	A U S N	A U S N	offered classes on parenting and caring for children of pregnant and parenting girls.
6.	A U S N	A U S N	offered classes on parenting and caring for children for teenage fathers.
7.	A U S N	A U S N	given low or failing grades in physical education while students with other medical conditions are allowed to substitute another course or repeat the course at a later date.

Pregnant and/or parenting students:

	<u>Should be</u>	<u>Are</u>	
8.	A U S N	A U S N	subjected to more stringent requirements for making up missed work than are students with other medical conditions.
9.	A U S N	A U S N	graded the same way any other student is graded.
10.	A U S N	A U S N	channeled into a specific course of study, such as vocational education.
11.	A U S N	A U S N	free as any other student to enroll in any course or program.
12.	A U S N	A U S N	enrolled in a special program or a special school.
13.	A U S N	A U S N	eligible to participate in a special program funded by the Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act.
14.	A U S N	A U S N	required to have home instruction from a tutor: they cannot stay in regular classes.
15.	A U S N	A U S N	given tutors for those who choose home instruction.
16.	A U S N	A U S N	given some instruction in family life education or sex education.
17.	A U S N	A U S N	given instruction in life planning and how to make decisions about when to become pregnant and have a baby.
18.	A U S N	A U S N	given instruction on contraception and birth control.

Pregnant and/or parenting students:

	<u>Should be</u>	<u>Are</u>	
19.	A U S N	A U S N	required to take certain courses because of their pregnancy or parenthood.
20.	A U S N	A U S N	allowed excused absences from school due to problems associated with pregnancy.
21.	A U S N	A U S N	allowed to be excused from class to go to the bathroom or health room.
22.	A U S N	A U S N	allowed excused absences for doctor's appointments or medical visits for prenatal care.
23.	A U S N	A U S N	allowed excused absences for doctor or medical visits for post-natal care.
24.	A U S N	A U S N	allowed excused absences if their child is sick or has a doctor's appointment.
25.	A U S N	A U S N	required to have a certificate from a physician in order to remain in school at all.
26.	A U S N	A U S N	given a leave from school for as long as is medically necessary.
27.	A U S N	A U S N	reinstated to the status they held when the leave began.
28.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted a standing hall pass so that pregnant students who need to urinate frequently can leave classrooms quickly and with little disruption.
29.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to leave class five minutes early because of possible difficulty in moving around.

Pregnant and/or parenting students:

	<u>Should be</u>	<u>Are</u>	
30.	A U S N	A U S N	suspended from school.
31.	A U S N	A U S N	expelled from school.
32.	A U S N	A U S N	encouraged to remain in school.
33.	A U S N	A U S N	encouraged to withdraw from school.
34.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to be members or officers in honorary societies (e.g., National Honor Society).
35.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to be on the honor roll.
36.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to be valedictorian, salutatorian, presidential scholar, or the recipient of other recognition for outstanding academic achievement.
37.	A U S N	A U S N	denied recommendations or given unfavorable recommendations for jobs or for further education due to their pregnancy or parenthood.
38.	A U S N	A U S N	excluded from work study or other jobs even if they are physically able to perform the tasks.
39.	A U S N	A U S N	strongly encouraged to pursue career and higher education goals.
40.	A U S N	A U S N	provided with career and job counseling from counselors who are familiar with their unique needs and problems.
41.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to attend class trips.

Pregnant and/or parenting students:

	<u>Should be</u>	<u>Are</u>	
42	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to be members of clubs.
43.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to be club or class officers.
44.	A U S N	A U S N	permitted to be student government representatives or officers.
45.	A U S N	A U S N	declared ineligible to run for prom or homecoming queen or court member.
46.	A U S N	A U S N	kept off the ballot for "class favorites," such as "most likely to succeed."
47.	A U S N	A U S N	kept from participating in graduation ceremonies.
48.	A U S N	A U S N	kept from participating in sport programs and athletic teams, if there is medical reason to exclude them.
49.	A U S N	A U S N	kept from participating in extracurricular activities at all.
50.	A U S N	A U S N	kept from participating in any extracurricular activity unless they have a physician's certificate.
51.	A U S N	A U S N	allowed use of school buses to get their infants to child care.
52.	A U S N	A U S N	provided child and infant care on school grounds.
53.	A U S N	A U S N	provided child and infant care close to the school, but not on school grounds.

Pregnant and/or parenting students:

	<u>Should be</u>	<u>Are</u>	
54.	A U S N	A U S N	provided special services in the school designed for teen fathers.
55.	A U S N	A U S N	viewed more harshly than teen fathers.
56.	A U S N	A U S N	given special school-sponsored activities for teen parents and their children.
57.	A U S N	A U S N	counted in the dropout rate.
58.	A U S N	A U S N	encouraged to stay in school.
59.	A U S N	A U S N	provided with teachers and counselors who are specially trained on issues around teen pregnancy and parenting.
60.	A U S N	A U S N	provided with school sponsored peer support groups for pregnant and parenting students.
61.	A U S N	A U S N	offered child birth or Lamaze classes by the school.
62.	A U S N	A U S N	offered care under federal special education funds (under the Education of the Handicapped Act) even if not handicapped.
63.	A U S N	A U S N	offered care under state special education funds to provide services even if not disabled.
64.	A U S N	A U S N	provided with school sponsored programs for their parents.
65.	A U S N	A U S N	offered a lot of help from teachers and counselors to stay in school.

Appendix G



March 25, 1991

Beryl Mitchell
3716 Greentree Farms Drive
Decatur, GA 30034

Dear Beryl:

I am very glad that you are interested in replicating the research that Maggie Nash and I conducted on the school climate for pregnant and parenting teens.

To help you, I am enclosing a couple of items:

- o Two copies of the questionnaire we used for the study; and
- o A copy of a draft of the report we wrote on the study (The Need for a Warming Trend) that indicates in brackets the item number from the questionnaire.

These items are copyrighted. You have my permission to use them to replicate this research in your locality, provided you give appropriate credit (to Margaret Dunkle and Margaret Nash of the Equality Center) and that you provide me with copies of your final report.

We developed a very efficient system for summarizing the data. I would be glad to share that with you or discuss it with you if that would be helpful. We also developed a summary of items in the questionnaire that indicates a definite or positive Title IX violation. Also, after we developed this questionnaire, we put together the questionnaire: "Does Your School Make the Grade?" (enclosed), which lists Title IX violations. I would recommend adding these items to the questionnaire. (Again, this is copyrighted, but we will grant you permission to use the materials for research purposes.)

In the meantime, best wishes as you pursue your research -- and do feel free to call me if I can be of any assistance.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Margaret".

Margaret C. Dunkle
Director

MCD:tp

Enclosures

Appendix H

**ATLANTA PUBLIC SCHOOLS**

Department of Research and Evaluation
210 Pryor Street, S.W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30335

June 6, 1991

Ms. Beryl D. Mitchell
3716 Green Tree Farms Drive
Decatur, Georgia 30034

Dear Ms. Mitchell:

Your request to conduct research within the Atlanta Public Schools (APS) was reviewed by the Research Screening Committee on May 28, 1991. Your proposed research study entitled "School Policies and School Personnel Attitudes Toward Pregnant and Parenting Students" was approved under the following conditions:

1. The approvals of the principals of the schools involved in your study must be obtained. You must report the names of the six high schools selected for your study to the Department of Research and Evaluation prior to beginning your study.
2. Teachers and administrative support staff may participate in your study only on a voluntary basis. The administration of your survey must not interfere with the instructional program and should not be completed during instructional time.
3. Since your survey instrument is lengthy and could be confusing, the Research Screening Committee would like to suggest that you pilot your instrument on a small, randomly selected group prior to administering it to staff members in the six schools.
4. If you plan to mail your survey instrument, you should prepare an accompanying cover letter. A copy of the cover letter should be sent to the Department of Research and Evaluation before beginning your study.
5. The confidentiality of teachers, staff, students, schools, and the school system must be preserved. Pseudonyms should be used in your final report, including the names of the six schools. Atlanta Public Schools should be referred to as an "urban school system in the Southeastern United States."
6. The data collection phase of your study should be completed by the end of the 1991-92 school year.
7. If changes are made in the research design or in the instruments used, you must notify the Department of Research and Evaluation prior to beginning your study.

This letter serves as official notification of the approval of your proposed research study pending the above conditions. Remember that a copy of the results of your


Ms. Beryl D. Mitchell

-2-

June 6, 1991

completed research study should be submitted to the Department of Research and Evaluation. Please do not hesitate to contact me at (404) 827-8186 if I can be of further assistance.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Nancy J. Emmons".

Nancy J. Emmons, Ph. D.
Researcher

NJE:lp
#6590

xc: Dr. LaMarian Hayes-Wallace

Appendix I

April 30, 1991

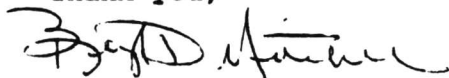
Dear School Personnel:

I am a doctoral student at Clark Atlanta University, School of Educational Leadership. I am in the process of collecting data for my dissertation. My research study is entitled: School Policies and School Personnel Attitudes Toward Pregnant and Parenting Students.

You have been randomly selected as a part of my sample population of school personnel. The data collected will be used for research purposes only. You will not be identified. All completed questionnaires will be treated as confidential material.

Please complete the questionnaire at the designated time. One member of your school will serve as contact person.

Thank you,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Beryl Mitchell".

Beryl Mitchell

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